

## Time and Space Multiplexing Focal Plane Convolvers

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ABSTRACT

Two varieties of Focal Plane Convolvers have been fabricated; the time multiplexing and the space multiplexing focal plane convolvers. They extract spacial features of a scene using parallel processing procedures at the imaging detector array site. The detailed description and operation of these devices is described. The following related areas of technology are also discussed:

- o Double Correlated Double Sampling
- o Equal Variance Mapping
- o Spacial Convolution Operators
- o Local Rotational Invariance
- o CCD Charge Transport
- o Charge Transport Efficiency
- o Uniformity Issues
- o Other Devices on the Reticle

1. INTRODUCTION

The Focal Plane Convolver (FPC) program\* supported the development of two types of analog image processing chips; a Time Multiplexing Focal Plane Convolver (TMFPC) and a Space Multiplexing Focal Plane Convolver (SMFPC). The TMFPC performs parallel processing by organizing packets of photo-converted charges over different time intervals while the SMFPC does its processing by organizing packets of photo-converted charges at different spacial locations over the same time interval. Both varieties were designed, fabricated, and tested.

These convolvers are capable of extracting linear spacial features as signatures to indicate the presence of a target. Both chips perform, in parallel, local "match filter" processing at the detector site(s). Three varieties of FPC chips were fabricated as well as many test structures: 1) An 11x11 TMFPC, 2) a 22x22 TMFPC and 3) a 120x120 SMFPC.

Three wafer lots were processed and tested. The test results are encouraging showing .99998 charge transfer efficiency, greater than 5% yield on 11x11 TMFPC arrays (excluding design flaws), charge handling capacity greater than 3000 electrons/ $\mu$ <sup>2</sup> and we successfully demonstrated TMFPC readout. Unfortunately, the results for lot 3 (for which many design flaws were corrected) still had high resistivity shorts between the two levels of polysilicon to the extent that imaging could not be demonstrated. The test results are sufficiently promising however, that additional funding is being sought to continue the effort.

In section 2, the TMFPC is described; it is shown how this chip performs spacial convolutions. In section 3, the SMFPC is described similarly. Section 4 contains a description of several related technologies including equal variance mapping and other devices on the reticle. Section 5, gives a summary and concludes with our current views of FPC technology.

2. TIME MULTIPLEXING FOCAL PLANE CONVOLVER

A focal plane convolver is a solid state electro-optical device capable of linearly combining opto-electronic signals from neighboring pixel sites for the purpose of extracting spacial or temporal signatures (convolutions) in images formed on the focal plane of a camera. The TMFPC combines signals integrated at neighboring sites over different time intervals (time multiplexing).

The output of a convolution process. (e.g., matched filtering) is a linear weighting of neighborhood (i,j) picture elements (pixels) with positive or negative weights,  $\alpha_{ij}$ . These weights are referred to as the convolution kernel. Entities familiar to you such as the x-derivative,  $I_x$ , or y-derivative,  $I_y$ , of a scene are examples of convolutions. The Laplacian operator

$$\frac{d^2 I}{dx^2} + \frac{d^2 I}{dy^2} \quad \text{denoted by } I_{xx} + I_{yy} \quad (\text{derivatives are denoted by } d)$$

\* This work was funded by DARPA and administered by ARDC under contract No. DAAA21-85-C-0296

subscripts) is another example of a convolution. It is used to enhance the spacial frequencies of a scene. There are many philosophies for convolution kernels. Different sets of convolution kernels are desired as pre-processing operations for image understanding. To detect edges and corners in an image could typically require five separate convolutions; two for edges  $I_x$ ,  $I_y$ , and three for detecting corners  $I_{xx}$ ,  $I_{xy}$ ,  $I_{yy}$ . Examples of 4x4 kernels for each of these is shown below:

$$I_x = \frac{1}{40} \begin{bmatrix} -3 & -1 & 1 & 3 \\ -3 & -1 & 1 & 3 \\ -3 & -1 & 1 & 3 \\ -3 & -1 & 1 & 3 \end{bmatrix} \quad I_y = \frac{1}{40} \begin{bmatrix} 3 & 3 & 3 & 3 \\ 1 & 1 & 1 & 1 \\ -1 & -1 & -1 & -1 \\ -3 & -3 & -3 & -3 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$I_{xx} = \frac{1}{8} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & -1 & -1 & 1 \\ 1 & -1 & -1 & 1 \\ 1 & -1 & -1 & 1 \\ 1 & -1 & -1 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \quad I_{yy} = \frac{1}{8} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 & 1 & 1 \\ -1 & -1 & -1 & -1 \\ -1 & -1 & -1 & -1 \\ 1 & 1 & 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$I_{xy} = \frac{1}{100} \begin{bmatrix} 9 & 3 & -3 & -9 \\ 3 & 1 & -1 & -3 \\ -3 & -1 & 1 & 3 \\ -9 & -3 & 3 & 9 \end{bmatrix}$$

When the TMFPC creates a convolution by combining charge in the neighborhood of each pixel, another image is generated. In a typical convolution,  $C_{i,j}$ , some of the coefficients  $\alpha_{i,m}$  are negative, the others are positive:

$$C_{i,j} = \sum_{l,m} \alpha_{i,m} I_{i-1,j-m}$$

Charge coupled devices (CCD) permit the accumulation of charge (electrons) in local buckets. When light falls on an unshielded depleted silicon region, the charge generation rate is proportional to the intensity of light falling on that region. By moving a (light shielded) charge bucket to different neighboring optically active locations, collecting charge there, and varying the dwell time at each region, a linear combination of neighboring pixel photo-converted charge is accumulated in the bucket. See Figure 1. But only positive coefficients (contributions) are permitted in such a process. To accommodate negative coefficients, two buckets must be utilized and the difference taken of the accumulated charge in both buckets. A light shielded area must be provided so that both the negative and positive contributions can "hide" while accumulating these contributions. We use a two dimensional CCD light shielded "roadway" system which accumulates, in parallel, the convolution contributions for every output pixel. The bucket pairs are clocked in the east-west roadway to reach neighboring pixels columns while already processed convolutions are simultaneously read out north to south. The difference in the positive and negative contributions to the convolution is taken using double correlated double sampling (DCDS) readout circuits. At each  $(l, m)$  neighbor, light is accumulated an amount of time proportional to the convolution coefficient magnitude  $|\alpha_{i,m}|$ . This performs the equivalence of multiplying the intensity by  $|\alpha_{i,m}|$ . If the a Kernel coefficient  $\alpha_{i,m}$  is positive (negative) the integrated photo-converted charge is transferred to the positive (negative) CCD bucket. When all  $l, m$  contributions have been accumulated for a given convolution, the bucket pairs are placed in the north-south highways for readout while the now vacant east-west buckets can be used for the next convolution; the readout process and next convolution process can occur simultaneously. Arbitrary convolution are possible limited only by chip timing considerations, the amount of light available, and the charge handling capacity of the buckets. A photograph of the TMFPC imaging chip is shown in Figure 2.

### 3. SPACE MULTIPLEXING FOCAL PLANE CONVOLVER

The Space Multiplexing Focal Plane Convolver works by "slicing" the optical image into sub-pixel portions and distributing them to many local charge bucket pairs for the execution of the desired convolution integral. Because each convolution is a local grouping of several sub-pixel charges, the convolutions are limited to those that have kernels with small integer coefficients.

In the basic concept of a SMFPC, one considers the image pixel as a logical pixel which is physically split into sub-pixels by the imaging focal plane. Today, it is possible to create  $5\mu \times 5\mu$  sub-pixels and soon  $3\mu \times 3\mu$  sub-pixel technology will be available.

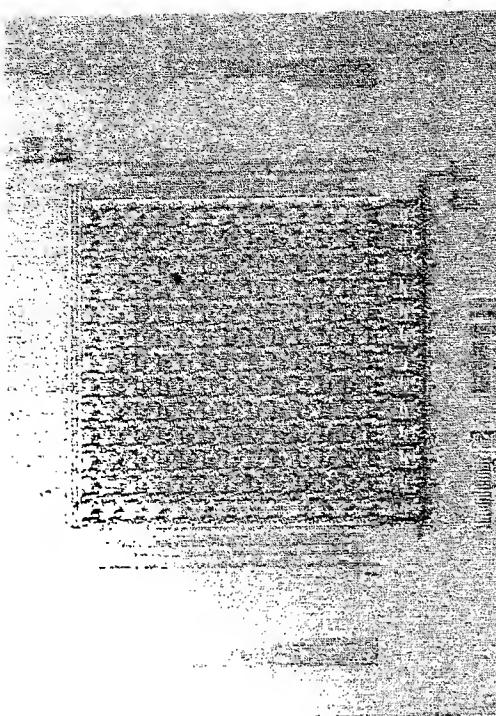


Figure 2. Photograph of the Time Multiplexing Focal Plane Convolver Chip

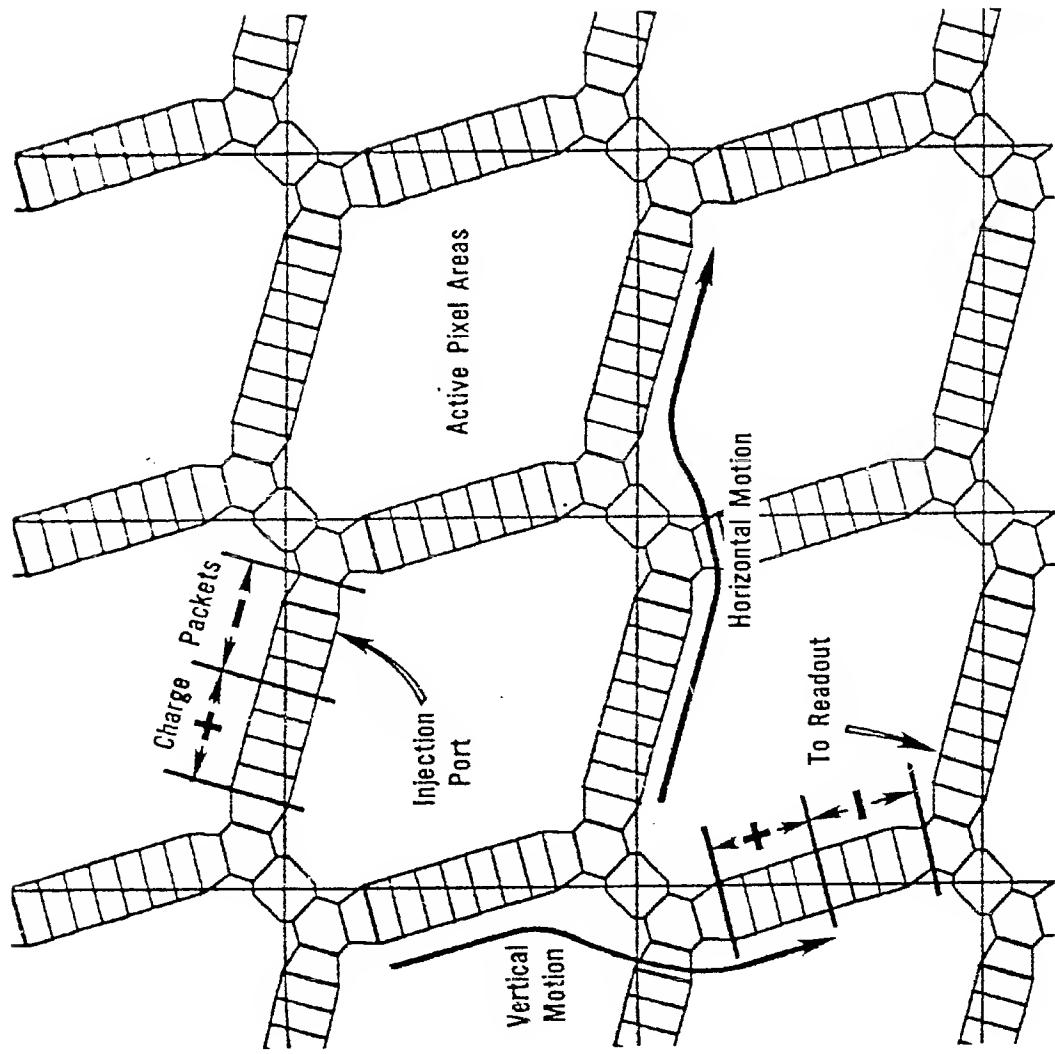


Figure 1. CCD "Roadway" for Focal Plane Convolver (120 x 120) Array

The sub-pixels can be smaller than the Airy disc (blur circle) of the optical focussing system. The proto-type SMFPC uses  $20\mu$  sub-pixel resolution as shown in Figure 3. The SMFPC design has 120x120 sub-pixels, but much larger arrays of much smaller sub-pixels are feasible.

The basic concept of the SMFPC is illustrated in Figure 4 where each logical pixel is divided into four sub-pixels and the  $I_{xx}$  convolution is performed by combining two sub-pixels from adjacent logical pixel corners into positive and negative contributing charge buckets. As can be seen, the space is multiplexed so that charge is combined into bucket pairs for each convolution (logical output pixel); there are as many convolutions (bucket pair read-outs) as there are logical pixels.

The motion needed of sub-pixel charges for aggregation into their appropriate  $P_+$  and  $P_-$  output charge buckets is controlled by feeding each image line of sub-pixel charge into a multiplexing region (see Figure 5) segmented in time so that the order in which charges from each line enter the multiplexer is controlled (modulo 12). For example, it is possible that all sub-pixel charges  $j$ , having  $j \bmod 12 = 7$ , "fall" into the multiplexer first followed then by all  $j \bmod 12 = 5$  sub-pixels etc. (See line charge control paragraph). Between each "fall", the group of output charge buckets responsible for "catching" that sub-pixel charge is moved under its column thereby adding its charge contribution to the appropriate convolution value. When all sub-pixel charges for a given convolution value have been collected, the output bucket pair is read-out using double correlated double sampling as is done for the TMFPC. This read-out action frees the buckets for beginning another convolution elsewhere in the image. It is important to note that, unlike the TMFPC, the SMFPC active area is identical in structure to normal imaging CCD structures.

### 3.1 Device Geometry Considerations

The number of sub-pixels required of a convolution depends upon the sum of the absolute integer coefficients in the kernel. This number can be any integer value, not always a perfect square like 4, 9, 16 etc. Thus, it is appropriate to discuss logical pixel geometries that are other than square but which form some uniform grid. The repetition of a logical pixel shape can be described by a pair of "lattice" basis translations ( $a$ ,  $b$ ) where each vector  $a$ ,  $b$  has integer coordinates. If  $a = (a_x, a_y)$  and  $b = (b_x, b_y)$ , then the area of the unit cell is  $|a \times b| = |a_x b_y - a_y b_x|$  which determines the number of sub-pixels contained therein. Figure 6 illustrates how logical pixel geometries can be formed for specific types of integer Kernels. The figure illustrates how a geometry of 12 sub-pixels for the  $I_{xx}$  and  $I_{yy}$  convolutions can be generated. We first note that the desired convolution Kernel is

$$I_{xx} = \frac{1}{3} \begin{bmatrix} 1 & -2 & 1 \\ 1 & -2 & 1 \\ 1 & -2 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \text{ and has the sum of}$$

its absolute integer entries equal to 12. We then select the smallest integers  $a_x$ ,  $a_y$ ,  $b_x$ ,  $b_y$  so that  $a_x b_y - a_y b_x = 12$ . This is achieved by setting  $a = (3, -2)$  and  $b = (3, 2)$  which results in the geometry of Figure 6.

### 3.2 Line Charge Control

To facilitate the multiplexing of sub-pixel charges from each line into their appropriate output buckets, it is necessary to control the release of charge from each line in some manner so that the various output buckets can move into position (sequentially) to "catch" the charges from the line. In the design, a modulo 12 control structure is used as shown in Figure 7. It consists of three portions; a modulo 3, modulo 4, and modulo 2 control. To accomplish this control, phases 2 and 4 have separate control gates over specific columns of the image. The modulo 3 control consists of two such 4 phase structures for which the first controls the passage of charge through column 1 and through columns (2, 3) while the second structure controls the flow of charge through column (1, 2) and through column 3. The structure can therefore implement delay in the flow of charge modulo 3. Modulo 4 and modulo 2 control work in a similar way.

## 4. RELATED TECHNOLOGIES and EXPERIENCES

There are a number of related technologies associated with the two Focal Plane Convolvers that should be described as background material for their full understanding. In this section we discuss:

- o Double Correlated Double Sampling
- o CCD Charge Transport and Charge Transport Efficiency
- o Equal Variance Mapping
- o Local Rotational Invariance
- o Uniformity Concerns
- o Other Devices on the FPC Reticle

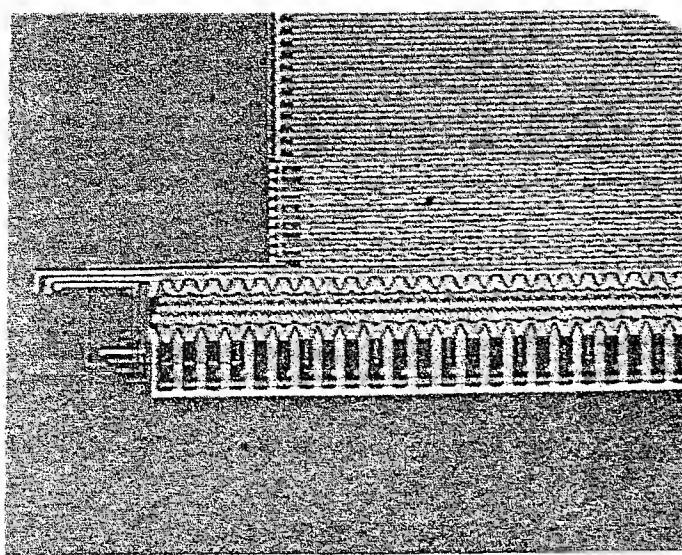


Figure 3. Photograph of the Space Multiplexing Focal Plane Convolver

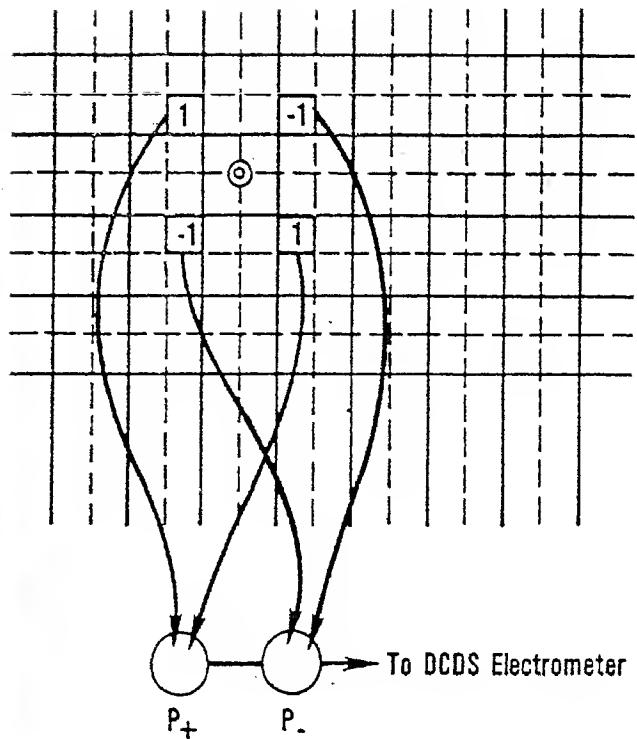


Figure 4. Illustration of the SMFPC Concept

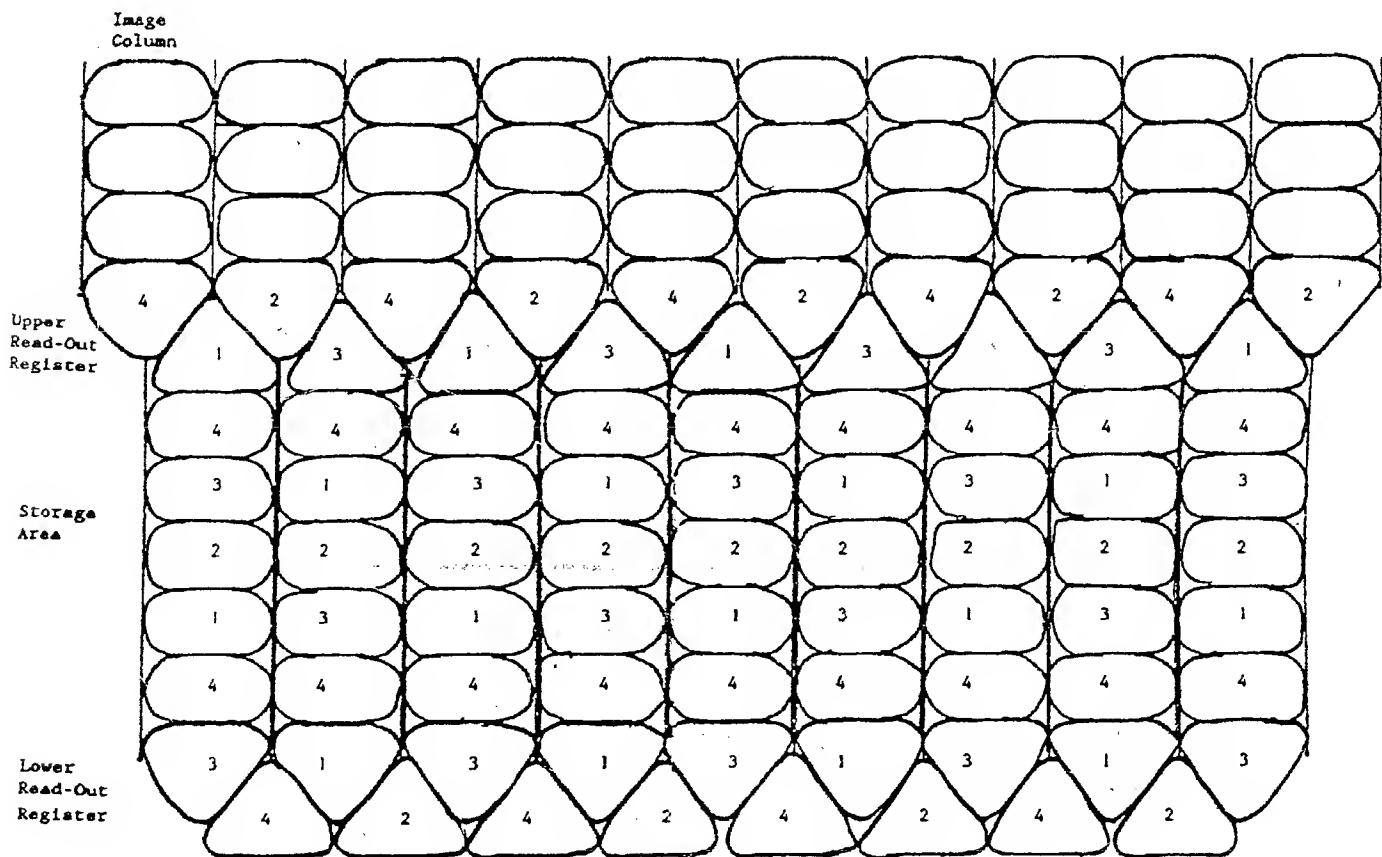


Figure 5. Stehlikgram of the Output Multiplexer

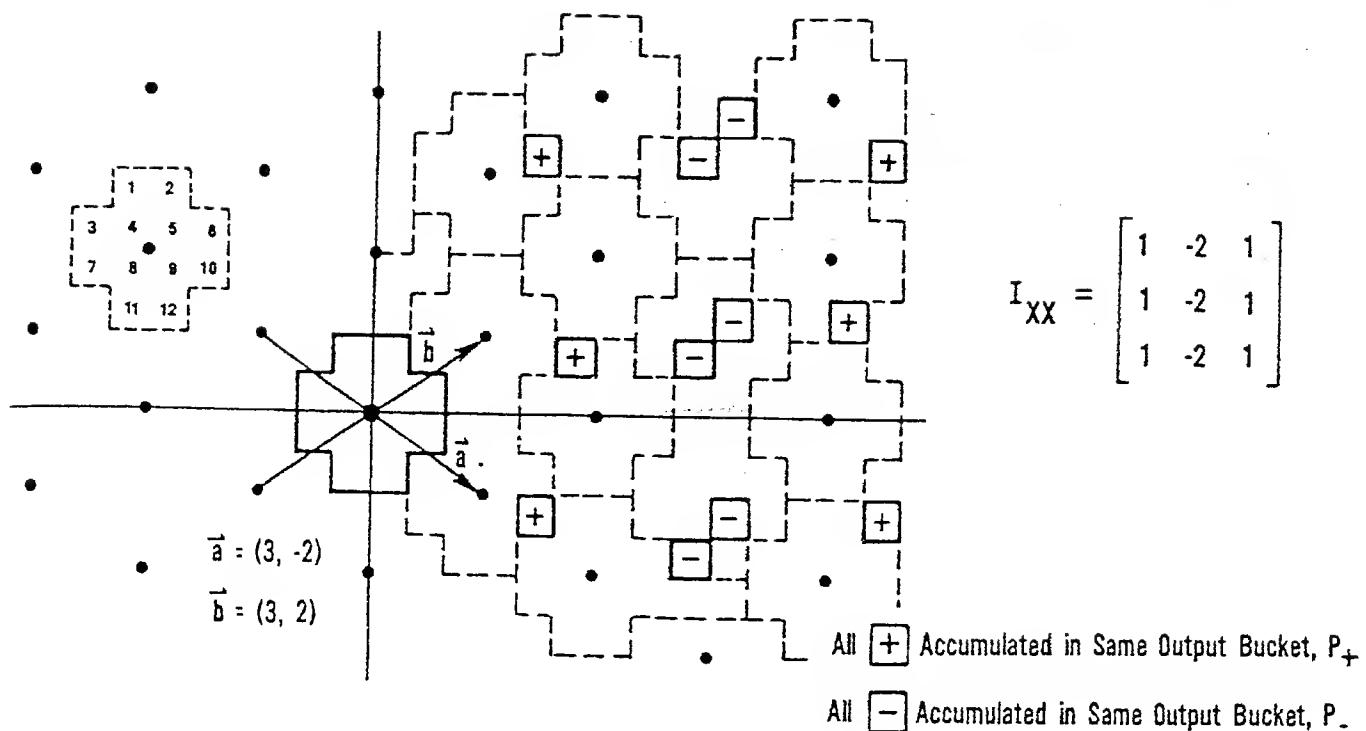


Figure 6. Space Multiplexing Geometry for the  $I_{xx}$  (or  $I_{yy}$ ) Convolution

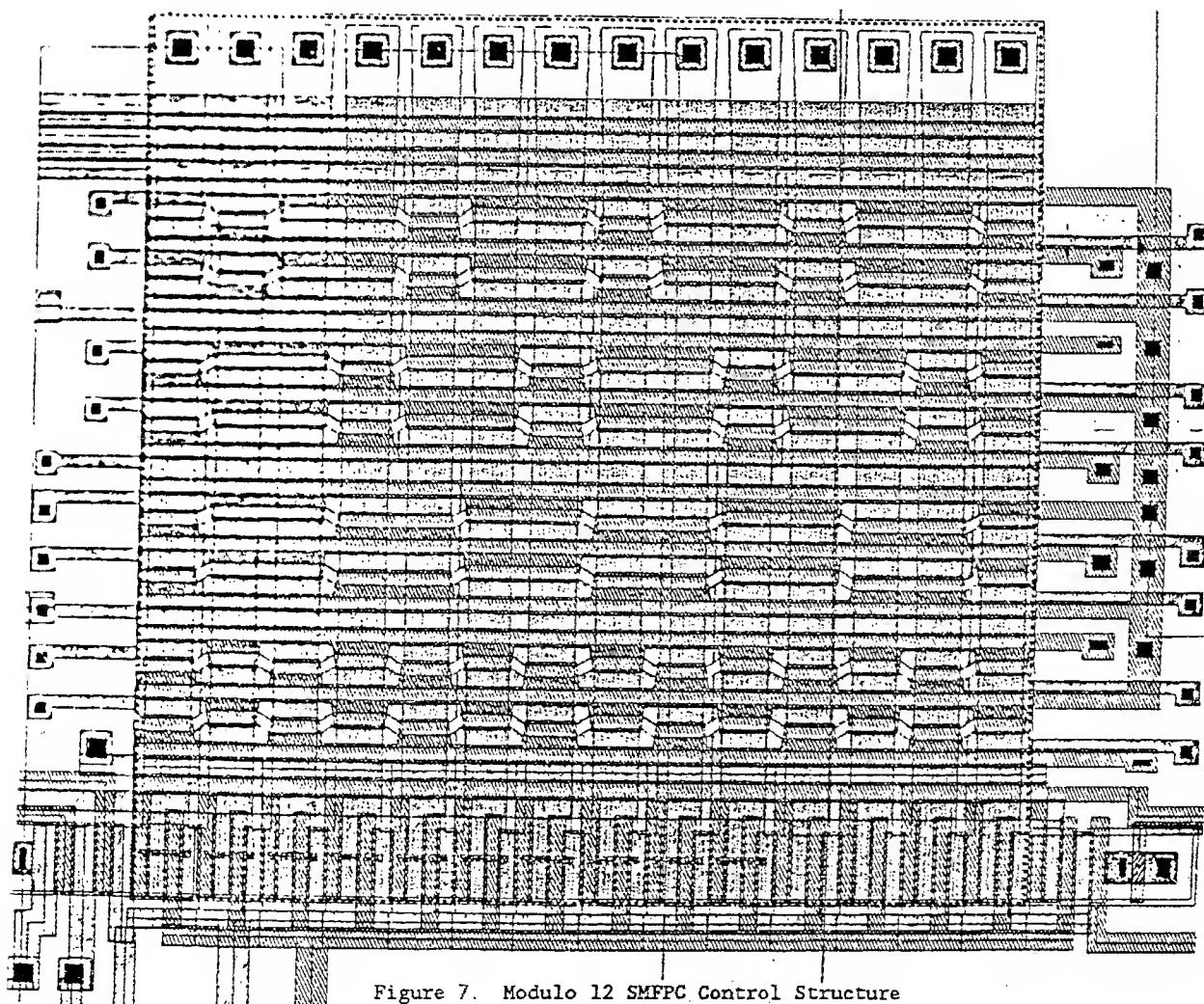


Figure 7. Modulo 12 SMFPC Control Structure

#### 4.1 Double Correlated Double Sampling (DCDS)

In our FPC application, we are using DCDS it to provide a voltage proportional to the difference between charge packets.  $Q_-$  is first applied to the CCD electrometer which provides a signal to the serial input while  $\phi_p$  is closed shorting the Capacitor  $C_p$  to ground.  $\phi_p$  is then opened and the serial input charge is reset. This provides a negative voltage proportional to  $(-Q_-)$  to the operational amplifier 2. Then, the "positive" charge packet,  $Q_+$ , is added to the serial input which provides a voltage proportional to  $(Q_+, -Q_-)$  at amplifier 2 which is then sampled by  $\phi_s$ . Both input and  $\phi_p$  are then reset to make ready for the next packet pair.

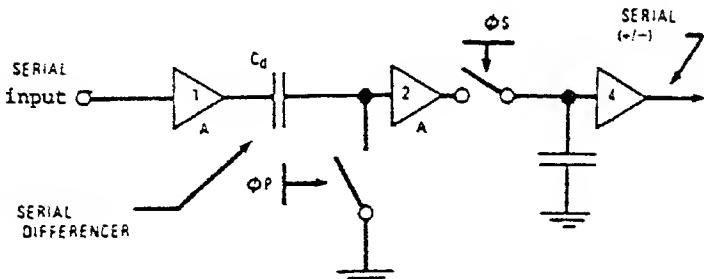


Figure 8. Double Correlated Double Sampling Circuit

#### 4.2 CCD Charge Transport and Charge Transfer Efficiency

A charge-coupled device is an array of closely spaced capacitors. A three-phase n-channel (electron transport) CCD is shown in Figure 9 and herein described. (Four phase devices, however, are more common.) The six MOS capacitors or electrodes connected to  $\phi_1$ ,  $\phi_2$ , and  $\phi_3$  clock lines form the main body of the CCD while the input diode (ID), the input gate (IG), the output diode (OD), and the output gate (OG) are the input and output structure that injects and detects charge packets to and from the main CCD body.

The operation of the device can be explained with the aid of Figure 10, which shows the various clock wave forms and the potential and charge distribution inside the device. As can be seen, charge is transported from capacitor to capacitor by applying the correct sequence of attractive and repulsive signals on the CCD gates.

#### 4.3 CCD Charge Transport and Charge Transport Efficiency

In the process of transporting charge in a CCD, some of the charge might be held back. Charge transfer efficiency,  $E$ , is one (1) minus the percent holdback over a 3 (or 4) gate transfer.

In a CCD, the rate at which charge is transferred depends upon several factors:

- o Transverse fringe field if any
- o Electron diffusion
- o Self generated transverse fields.

In the usual case, the gates are so long relative to the channel depth that the exponentially varying fringe fields die out too fast before they can influence the migration of charge into the accepting cell. One normally relies on self generated transverse fields and electron diffusion currents. A simple theory shows that the last bit of charge to be transferred is controlled by diffusion and that the time constant,  $\tau$ , in seconds is proportional to the square of the gate length  $L$ .

$$\tau = .046 L^2 \text{ when } L \text{ is measured in cm.}$$

A transverse field is required to achieve faster transfer rates. Two techniques for building a transverse field into the design are:

- o Peristaltic CCD's
- o Triangular gates

The peristaltic approach involves a deeply buried channel where the bottom of the channel is roughly  $.4 \mu$  times the gate length. At  $.5\mu$  depth, the gate lengths should be  $1.25\mu$ ! These are VHSIC design rules which could severely affect yield for CCD designs. An alternative approach is to use triangular gates in conjunction with deeply buried channels. Here, the fringe fields cooperate to generate transverse fields and the gate geometries are not as severe. Such a triangular gate linear CCD array is on the FPC reticle.

Upon testing this device, we achieved nearly .99999 charge transfer efficiency demonstrating that the approach could be used for high speed designs. The triangular gate concept is used in the SMFPC design.

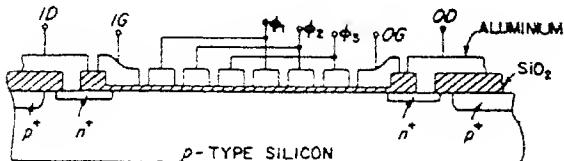


Figure 9. A Three-Phase, N-Channel Charge-Coupled Device Cross-Sectional

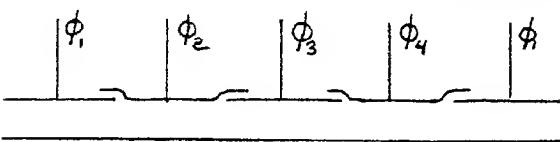


Figure 11. Four Phase CCD Device

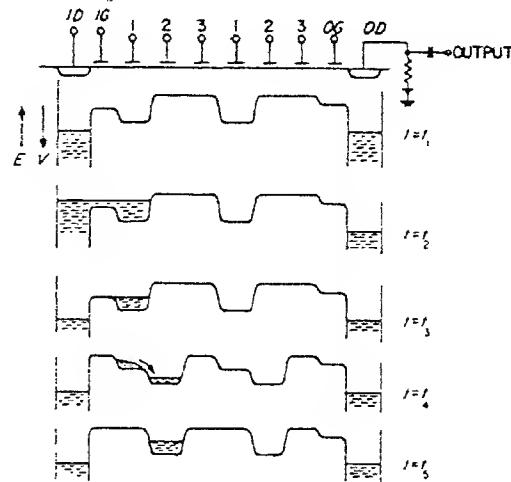


Figure 10. Sketch of Potential and Charge Distribution of the Device Shown

#### 4.4. Equal Variance Mapping

For some sensors, in particular visible imagery, the measured intensity at a pixel site will have a noise component which depends upon the number of photo-converted electrons present. This intensity dependent noise is due to the random nature of the photon emission process and is called shot noise. Prior to spacial processing, consideration was given to remapping the intensity space to an equal variance space; a square root-like mapping function is desired prior to convolutions. The TMFPC provides a charge partition gate within a resistive gate region for this purpose. The charge partitioning option provides the desired mapping function on the TMFPC.

#### 4.5. Local Rotational Invariance

Gradient Magnitudes, Gaussian Curvature, Laplacian and other "contractions" of tensor quantities are scalars. Scalars are rotational invariances. They are measures of the object being sensed and are independent of the coordinate system orientation. It can be observed that many of these non-linear scalars can be written as the sum or difference of the squares of linear convolution operators. For example, (1) the square gradient (edge detector) is

$$G^2 = I_{xx}^2 + I_{yy}^2, \quad (2) \text{ the Gaussian Curvature (corner detector) is } C = 4 (I_{xx} I_{yy} - I_{xxy}^2) \\ = (I_{xx} + I_{yy})^2 - (I_{xx} - I_{yy})^2 - (2I_{xxy})^2 \text{ and (3) the line end operator} \\ E = 2 I_{xxy} (I_{xxy} - I_{yy}) + I_{yy} (I_{yy} - I_{xx}) \\ = (I_{xxx} - 1/2 I_{yyx})^2 - (I_{xxx} - 3/2 I_{yyx})^2 + (I_{yy} - 1/2 I_{xxy})^2 - (I_{yy} - 3/2 I_{xxy})^2$$

For these reasons, analog squaring circuits have been included as test devices on the FPC reticle.

#### 4.6 Uniformity Concerns

To achieve reasonable convolution processing accuracy e.g (6 to 8 bits) the charges in neighboring pixels must properly represent their photon flux. Two sources of non-uniformity are:

- o Quantum efficiency variations
- o Non-uniform leakage

Pixel to pixel variations in quantum efficiency will show up as false spacial patterns in regions of high optical intensity. This non-uniformity can come about because of transparency variations in the  $\text{SiO}_2$  insulator or in the active pixel resistive gate region. It could also come about as a consequence of area non-uniformity. By using thinner dielectrics and  $\text{SnO}_2$  transparent electrodes, the fluctuations due to material variations at pixel sites can be reduced to tolerable levels.

Another source of pixel non-uniformity is leakage. This leakage is a thermal charge generation effect which is significantly reduced at low e.g. (77°K) operational temperature. For room temperature operations, leakage will lead to false spacial patterns. Fortunately, these patterns are independent of the input image and leads to background convolutions which can be subtracted from the convolved imagery.

#### 4.7 Other Devices on the FPC Reticle

The following is a list of devices that were fabricated with the TMFPC and SMFPC devices. Space does not permit us to describe these devices or their test status:

#### 4.8 FPC Device

- o 11x11 Time Multiplexing Focal Plane Convolver
- o 11x11 Time Multiplexing Focal Plane Convolver
- o 120 x 120 Space Multiplexing Focal Plane Convolver

#### 4.9 Test Devices

- o Time-Mux center cell
- o Line arrays
- o Charge replication cell
- o CCD squaring circuit
- o Electrometer/Amplifier
- o 12-channel SMFPC control gate test structure
- o 12 channel output multiplexing shift register

In addition, there are a large variety of Process Test Structures. Process test devices exist for performing all the standard wafer processing tests and process control tests using.

### 5. Summary and Conclusions

Time multiplexing and space multiplexing focal plane convolvers useful for target detection and tracking were designed, fabricated and tested. Three wafer lots of twenty wafers each were processed. As a consequence of testing on the devices of the first two lots, all test anomalies were understood and steps were taken to correct the mask errors and modify the process recipe. Upon testing of some third lot devices, it was found that the modified process recipe did indeed lead to much better uniformity, charge handling capacity and greater charge transfer efficiency. However, there are still two problems:

- o High resistivity intra-layer short between two TMFPC gates
- o Inter-layer shorts between the two polysilicon and between Polysilicon and substrate.

Program funding did not permit us to perform the QA laboratory wafer tests needed to isolate the location of the intra-layer shorts.

Because all aspects of the TMFPC array have been made to work, we are assured of a working TMFPC should the two existing deficiencies be corrected.

#### Reference(s)

1. Westinghouse Final Report to ARDEC - Focal Plane Convolver DAAA21-85-C-0296, July 1987.